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AUTHOR	Hilligen, Wolfgang
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ABSTRACT

An innovative social studies teacher education program at the University of Tubingen, West Germany, is described. The problems, aims, and structure of the course of study as well as general theories of learning in West Germany are discussed and these educational phenomena are compared with their American counterparts. The paper is presented in four sections. Section I introduces the preconditions, problems, and development of the social studies program. Four subject areas are identified: sociology, political science, law, and economics. Section II discusses specific problems of the project including key concepts, key questions, and creation of a matrix to reflect these elements. Section III compares American and German structures of knowledge and problems of scientific theory. Section IV presents texts from the social studies curriculum. A bibliography is included in the document. (Author/DB)

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REPORT ON THE DISTANCE STUDIES
COURSE "SOCIAL STUDIES"

Wolfgang Hilligen

Bloomington, Indiana: Institute of German Studies, 1976

The author teaches at the Gesamthochschule Siegen, Hölderlinstrasse 3, 5930 Hüttental-Weidenau. He has published numerous textbooks and theoretical works on political education.

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Inquiries should be addressed to the Institute of German Studies or to the Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung.

Report on the Distance Studies Course "Social Studies"*

(Organized by the German Institute for Distance Studies)

Wolfgang Hilligen

0. Purpose

This paper is designed to provide information about the problems, the aims, and the structure of the distance studies course "Social Studies" at Deutsches Institut für Fernstudien (DIFF) at the University of Tübingen. In connection with the proposition that academic didactics and school didactics do not differ basically from one another, this report is intended at the same time as the outline of a general view of the position of didactic discussion in the Federal Republic as seen by the author. In addition the paper will try to deal with some corresponding viewpoints of American authors, to whom the author owes some stimulation--for example, concerning the term the "structure of knowledge," i.e. the relation between the systematics of a certain scientific discipline and the process of learning.

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*Because of the autonomy in matters of education in the Länder (states) there is no agreement in the Federal Republic on the name for that school discipline which is called "Social Studies" or "Civic Education" or "Civics" in the United States. Until recently, along with the subject dealing with societal affairs and integrating politics, history, economics, and geography (Gemeinschaftskunde) for the upper classes at the Gymnasium (senior high school)--Social Studies was the general term for the school discipline that was explicitly designed as political education. Limiting Social Studies (Sozialkunde) to the social (Sozial-) aspect contradicts the political foundation of the subject and the artificial barrier to understanding of the passing on (Kunde) of information about popular lore is contradictory to academic practice. Therefore, political education, politics and history (North-Rhine Westphalia) or Social Studies (Hesse) in the American sense are increasingly being used.

Up to now the integration of history and geography into "Social Studies" has only been attempted in Hesse. At the present time (1975) the tendency seems to be gaining ground, even in the upper classes at the Gymnasium.

In our project history and geography are not integrated. Therefore it is more a question of "Civics" than "Social Studies" or "Social Sciences" in the American sense.

This paper is divided into four sections:

- Chapters 1, 2, 3.0 and 3.1 give an elementary introduction.
- In Chapters 3.2 to 3.5 several further problems are discussed.
- Digression 1 (problems of scientific theory), II (statement on J.S. Bruners approach), III (structure of knowledge) are intended more for experts,
- The Appendix (Chapter 4) with texts from the distance study course is intended to give examples of the concept of this course.

1. Preconditions and Problems in the development of the distance study programme "Social Studies"

1.1 Preconditions, Addressees

In the states of the Federal Republic there have only been study courses for social science teachers at teacher training colleges for a few years. (In Hesse, Berlin, Hamburg and Bremen at Universities; in North-Rhine Westphalia: at Teacher Training Colleges integrated in the Universities) These student-teachers study political science, sociology or economic science (political economy) as subject matter disciplines, subject-specific didactics for Social Studies and the basic sciences "Pedagogics", "Psychology" and "Sociology" of the Educational System. They also have as subsidiaries two further subjects, for example German or English or history or geography.

The number of teachers who teach Social Studies without having studied it still amounted to 70% in 1974 in the largest federal state North-Rhine Westphalia; these teachers had mostly studied history.

Thus the need for a distance study course originated. It is meant for teachers from all kinds of schools, who want to obtain a qualification to teach social studies at a certain level or simply want to give better lessons to their present classes. It is also designed for students who are studying social studies and want to take the state exam to become a teacher.

1.2 What problems had to be solved?

With these preconditions the course had to solve the following problems:
It had to give the basics of the social sciences and a grounding in the didactics of the subject; also to decide how the relationship between academic studies and schoolteaching should be regulated.
In order to solve these problems an Academic Advisory Board[+] from the German Institute for Distance Studies was called in as the decision making body for planning and control. It was made up of members from many scientific disciplines and carried out for the most part the work connected with the development of the conceptual framework. (The planning of the subject related didactics of the course was based on the approach of the author of this report).
The Advisory Board's task was to check whether the manuscripts corresponded with the total concept. In particular the Advisory Board's task was to decide about the following questions:

1. Which social sciences should be considered?
2. How should the relation between the social sciences as such and the curricular-thematic structure develop?
3. Should a link be made to the way the subject is taught in school - and in what way?

These problems and questions had to be solved by the structure of the distance study course.

[+] The Academic Advisory Board consists of 14 members: 3 political scientists (one acting as the representative of the Conference of Vice-Chancellors of West German Universities), 2 sociologists, 3 political economists, 2 experts in Jurisprudence, 2 experts in didactics (one of which was the author) the deputy director of DIFF and 1 higher official in school administration as representative of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education of the German States.

The next question concerned the structure and approach of the course.

4. On the basis of what criteria of selection should the aims and contents of the course be determined. What should be the final qualifications awarded?

This question will be discussed more fully in Chapter 3 of this paper. Here is just a preliminary answer: The Advisory Board agreed that the selection should be made according to the following questions: What must the participants in the course and the students at school learn, if they are to be made capable of taking part in solving existential, socio-political problems? The participants should become qualified to find an answer themselves to the question: What should be studied and taught if the results of the study of social sciences are to enable them to solve existential problems?
From these formulations it becomes clear that according to our opinion questions 2 and 4 are just as valid for university curricula as for school curricula. The last question is about the formal structure according to the didactics of distance study:

5. How can the complex amount of information be reduced without becoming dangerously simplied? How can the recognition and understanding of correlations and essential facts be made easier.

The solutions found by the representatives of DIFF and the didactics specialists will be outlined in Chapters 2 and 3. The Appendix, Chapter 4, contains a few examples.

2. Structure and methods of presentation of the distance study course in answer to the problems or questions 1 to 3 and 5

2.1 Which subject matter

The Academic Advisory Board was able to agree relatively quickly on the question of which social sciences should be included in the distance study course. Since history and geography are traditionally optional subjects in the states of the Federal Republic and many teachers are trained to teach them, sociology, political science, political economy, and law were chosen (the last not in all its branches and problems but primarily in its politico-practical relations for example, under the topics "The Constitutional and Welfare State", "Law Reform".

2.2 The relation between the scientific systematics of the subject matter and the choice of topics for the curriculum

The discussion on the Academic Advisory Board about this problem lasted for more than two years. The Advisory Board decided to present the content of the course under three different aspects:

- under the aspect of the systematic structure of the disciplines in four "Grammars"
- under the aspect of the didactics of the disciplines in a study letter in didactics called the "Prologue".
- under the aspect of practical problem fields in the 21 (topical) "Phenomena study letters".

The "Didactic Prologue" (written by the author) is a kind of central thread for the whole course It is designed to make the didactic approach clear, to introduce the discussion on didactics, link up the "Grammars" and study letters on phenomena and offer tangible help for the work with materials (compare with Chapter 3)

The four Grammars, built up according to the structure of the discipline involved are designed to offer a kind of information which is comparable to that of the syntax of a grammar. They have a dual function in a distance study course. Each of the four "Grammars" present an introduction to the respective academic discipline, offering a survey of the subject matter, theory, methods and the state of research in this field.
At the same time the "Grammars" form a reference work giving the student explanations about the special academic questions which occur in connexion with the reading of the study letters on phenomena.

The 21 study letters on phenomena are designed to convey to the student both knowledge on the subject matter and an understanding of its problems which are needed in the context of teaching, and to show overlapping aspects of a didactic and academic nature. They serve further to deepen understanding of phenomena in an exemplary way.
By phenomena we do not understand just political, sociological, legal or economic institutions but instead real conflict bound problem-fields of medium term topicality whose importance can be seen by everybody. Problematic situations of conflict, typical of reality, are emphasized.

Consequently the study letters offer study material which is to be continuously worked at whereas the "Grammars" and also parts of the "Didactic Prologue" are seen as being reference material accompanying the course. Through this structure the student should be enabled to accomplish a scientific analysis of important problem areas in society; while doing this he can always refer back to the "Grammars" to categorise theoretical explanatory models

better and to orient his learning by following the structure of the disciplines in question.
When writing the study letters the interdisciplinary approach could only be kept to in so far as interdisciplinary aspects were considered. However, the topics were each time assigned to a controlling academic discipline. This categorisation is reflected in the grouping of the study letters on phenomena in subject blocks, as follows from the following survey of titles (a survey of the contents of the distance study course is given on p.7a).

2.3 The link to the teaching situation

The Academic Advisory Board adopted the following propostion: Didactic theory remains speculative as long as it does not evaluate its theore[illegible] and explanatory hypotheses at each single step of the teaching and learning process. Both the study letters on phenomena and the Prologue form the link to the Teaching Situation: The study letters are concerned with those phenomena and fundamental problems that, taking age into account could be more or less direct elements of lessons.
The teaching examples in the Prologue have a dual function. They are intended to clarify the didactic approach, and they are intended to act, in a way, as tested models transferable to other topics and situations (see the second example in Chapter 4)

Survey of the distance study course

Didactic Prologue

(Academic preconditions of the didactics of the subject - didactic approaches.- scientific disciplines and the teaching situation)

Sociology Block:

Study letters on phenomena

Sociology "Grammar"

Needs and society

Education and Society

Changing Functions of the Family

Problem of Adolescence

Profession and the working world

Social inequalities

Political Science Block

Study letters on phenomena

Political Science "Grammar"

Infrastructure

Problem of Participation in Modern Democracies

Parliament and Government

The Function of the State in the areas of Order and Social Matters

Sovereignty and Supranationality

Development Policy

Security of Peace

A Comparison of Political Systems (planned)

Law Block

Study letters on phenomena

Law "Grammar"

Constitutional and Social Welfare State

Law and Forms of Law

Economics Block

Study letters on phenomena

Economics "Grammar"

Comparison of Economic Systems

The State as a Regualator in a Free Market Economy

Participation of Workers in Management

The Economic Integration of Europe

The World Monetary System in the West

2.4 The structure according to the didactics of distance studies

The various ways of presentation and the methodic - didactic structure of the course are an attempt to find the answer to a dilemma of academic studies. This dilemma can be outlined briefly as follows:
The explosion of knowledge in the academic disciplines has led to an almost incalculable amount of matter that is known academically - every selection, abridgement and simplification is in danger of obscuring the fact that specialisation, differentiation and controversies irrevocably belong to an academic inquiry.
To help combat this problem the following methodic measures were developed by DIFF and the author:

- a triple-graded method of presentation
- a subject-content related structure of the texts in the study letters following tested criteria of learning psychology.

Within the study letters the following methods of presentation are differentiated:

1. Basic texts containing fundamental information or presented in summaries and table.
2. Systematic or continuing/supplementary materials and texts.
3. References to and details of ancillary literature partly with brief annotation.

The subject-content related structure is elucidated by numerous sub-headings, by decimal numbering and by dividing it into manageable sections.
The formal methodic-didactic structure, including information about the weight and importance of each section, is above all characterised by formal marginalia at the edge of the study letter, e.g. (Part-) Phenomena - Stimulus - Terminological explanation - Summary -

Leading question - Aid to interpretation - Proposition - Hypothesis - Methodic note.

Exercises, cross-references and special references to literature ease the integration of single pieces of information into larger contexts. In addition a glossary is given with the study letters to explain the less well-known technical terms.
Elements of cognitive learning theory are applied with these aids. To a large extent it was the task of the editorial staff of DIFF consisting of three academics to edit the manuscipts according to the didactics of distance studies.
The marginalia "problem context" and "intention" have in the author's approach, a special function in the sense of cognitive learning theory.
Under "problem context" what place the actual (sub-) chapter occupies inside the study letter or distance study course is explained, and which overlapping problem is to be answered. Under "intention" the content of each (sub-) chapter is explained with reference to a definition of the learning objectives.

As an explanation, an example from the " Didactic Prologue" is presented in the Appendix under 4.3; here it is not so much a question of content as the formal layout. However, it is possible to see from the "problem context" on the theories and didactics of conflict how the problem "social conflicts" is didactically structured.

3. The didactic approach of the distance study course in social studies:

(In addition the answer to question 4 under 1.2)

Intention:

In this section the didactic approach forming the basis of the distance study course, is to be outlined after a brief sketch of one or two differences and common factors connected with didactic preconditions and views in the USA and the Federal Republic:

- the tools for the selection and weighting of learning objectives and the contents (3.2)
- the reasons for norm decisions from the viewpoint of politics and academic theory. (3.3)
- the relation between subject-specific systematics and didactic structure (with a short digression on our view of Bruners term "the Structure of Knowledge) (3.4)
- other dimensions of didactics, so, for example, method and style of teaching are only to be briefly dealt with (3.5)

3.0 Several differences and common factors in the view of "Didactics"in the USA and the Federal Republic

In the USA the term "didactics" is seldom used. Before the question of an academic evaluation of learning objectives and curriculum construction moved into the centre of discussion (roughly until the beginning of the 1960s) didactics was described as the "Theory of Method". Basically it meant making the learning processes optimal. Even Metcalf in his handbook contribution, translated and commented on by the author,[+] did not use the term. What Gage presents is above all - apart from a survey of research projects -"the Reflective Theory of Method" - a proposal for conceptual learning in the Social Studies: "Reflective thought is the active, careful and persistent examination of any belief, or purported form of knowledge, in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions toward which it tends".

In the USA a start is also being made to investigate

[+] Metcalf, Research on Teaching the Social Studies, Chapter 17, in: Gage: Handbook of Research on Teaching, Chicago 1963, p. 929 - 965; German: Hilligen, Handbuch der Unterrichtsforschung III, Weinheim 1967/71, Sp. 2533-2670 scientifically the questions: What shall be taught? Why? And to what end? This is being done through the theories of curriculum, the application of methods for evaluation, the search for basic concepts, the treatment of conflicts (Oliver) and, in my opinion, above all through Bruner's suggestions and his cognitive theory. In the USA the question of the purpose of the highest learning aims was, however, not controversial, as far as I can see, at least until the Vietnam crisis and Watergate. What democratic ideas are, was answered by the ideal of the Declaration of Independence, the dignity of national symbols and the continuity of historical development. In this way teaching was able to link up with the results of political socialisation. It could restrict itself more strongly to the "How";loyalty towards one's country, obedience to the law, knowing about the institutions were ranked above the question which interests and intentions carry the choice of aims and contents.+

Opposed to this the conditions for political education in the Federal Republic are marked by the fact that historical continuity has been broken many times. Teaching cannot link up to one political socialisation by which fundamental harmonious values are communicated.

According to the investigations of Almond and Verba in 1960/61 in the USA

+ That the adjustment to the American way of life was placed far above criticism may perhaps also in past be caused by the influence of Parson's "systematic theory". Parson inquires primarily into the conditions for the ability of systems to function: if the interaction between system and subsystem, between system and the environment of the system are so ordered through norms and rules that the existence of the system is not endangered. In oppostion to this the German systematic theoretician Luhmann starts with the functions (tasks) that a system should fulfil. He doesn't ask first if it works but if it can solve new problems important for life

85% of the population were "proud of the political institutions";
In the Federal Republic the percentage was
7% (and about 30% were proud of the economic system)+

Therefore the question of political socialisation through schools wasmore pressing in the Federal Republic than in the USA. Linked to this was the question of the possibilities of a scientific justification for norm decisions This question was raised especially by the argument on value judgments in the social sciences between positivist sociologists proceeding from empiric - analytical standpoints, and sociologists critical of society. Didactics of the humanities which had always been understood as the theory of the learning content was opened up with the argument on Positivism to sociological and socially critical questions. Behaviorist theories had not been developed very much until a few decades ago, and up to now they have hardly played a part in the didactics of social sciences.

In addition didactics have developed further reasons for the pre-eminence of the questions about What - Why and to what end.

It appears to a European observer as if the Behaviorist School in USA were being pushed aside in favour of the Cognitive School (Bruner, Ausubel), through the efforts of value clarification (Sydney Simon, Louis Raths), the effort to find a revisioned history and also through the socially critical influences of the new left, especially Marcuse, who is one of the

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+ Almond and Verba: Civic Culture. Boston and Toronto 1963, p. 29 f.

leading lights of the Frankfurt school. I cannot judge how far these influences have become effective in day to day school life; that teacher training in America deals with them can be seen from the fact that at this conference information about the Frankfurt School is on the programme as well.

3.1 Terminology, purposes, functions and the dimensions of didactics in the Federal Republic from the perspective of the subject specific didactics of social sciences or social studies .

In the Federal Republic didactics+ has been understood since the end of the 50's especially for the social

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+ In Germany three conceptions or models are represented in general didactics:
- Didactics of educational theory rooted in the humanities as "didactics in the narrower meaning" (Klafki); it analyses first of all the reason and choice of the aims and contents of teaching and learning,
- Didactics of learning (or teaching) theory, which is understood as the theory of practical teaching and sets up a comprehensive analysis of factors effective in the teaching process for the purpose of planning. Also it has as its root "intentionality", the Why and Wherefore
- the didactics of the theory of cybernetics, the didactics of information and educational technology, which are looking for processes to achieve learning objectives effectively through control and guidance.

All these statements on the problem of teaching and learning can count as partial aspects of a general theory of teaching and learning. A leading theoretician Blankertz, came after a thorough analysis of the conception to the "proposition that the three basic positions of current didactics only apparently compete with each other; that they rather keep, or at least could keep, each other in fruitful criticism and continuous awareness of their problems". (1969, p.7) On the other hand the differing underlying scientific theories and the different crucial points of the 3 conceptions each require a clarification of priorities The didactic concept represented here is that of the didactics of educational theory, based on the humanities which has been opened up to the critical study of ideology since the end of 60s - and on the primacy of sciences, foremost as a scientific discipline which can be used to justify aims and selection criteria; also it investigates the ways and means, the method, the transmitting of knowledge, and the preconditions and conditions of learning. The three areas have, it is true, different approaches, but they are not completely separated; on the contrary they depend on each other.

3.1.1 Further reasons for the primacy of the question about selection criteria:

(1) Reasons, which are deduced objectively from the quantative development of sciences or from empiric investigations;
(2) Reasons that - more or less - are concerned with social change, with the difference between consciousness and new social reality;
(3) Reasons that are concerned with the specialisation and self-imposed isolation of the disciplines.

to (1) Reasons from investigations:
First of all it is the exponentially increasing multiplication of scientifically proved knowledge that has turned the question about the selection of what is to be conveyed into an academic one.
Stanford University (USA) ascertained in 1966 that knowledge had quadrupled each time:

(footnote continued)
didactics in the narrower sense as opposed to "method"; the justification of aims and content has precedence over the How, over learning theory and educational technology:
- because methodic regulations can always only be dealt with after it has been fixed WHAT is going to be taught and learnt
- because teaching and learning are not primarily intended to aim for an increase in performance, but for the unfolding and development of the individual and society.

from 1800 to 1900
from 1900 to 1950
from 1950 to 1960
from 1960 to 1965

With graduates of the Gymnasien and the universities a lack of the ability to construct connexions between the "particular" (single cases or phenomena) and the "general" has been ascertained, for example:

"Superficial knowledge and restricted points is typical. Above all there is a lack of the knowledge of connexions". (Teschner (1968) 119 f.)

"Even candidates for the higher teaching posts are not capable of placing their knowledge about single items into their understanding of the world". (Joint statements by members of the examination boards at the conference, "Political education at teacher training colleges", Trier, 1965)

"More than a third (35%) of in-service teachers are not able to give the aims of political education, (...), that appear to them so important that they were prepared to realise them in their profession " (Stimpel) (1970, p . 98)

to (2) Didactics as a result of social change: How did people learn - how do people learn today, "what matters"?

In societies based on agriculture and the trades and controlled by tradition, in which social change took place extremely slowly - if ever - young people learnt what they needed for life, what mattered, if they wanted to master their existence, in and through their environment.

The processes of socialisation (the training in the expected behaviour and in the observance of society's norms) were almost exclusively determined by the given community, through the family, relatives, and class. What could and should be done, known and experienced,

- different depending on social group, rank and class - was laid down by power structures, religion, family, norm, and strengthened unquestioned by institutionalised education, as far as it was available at all.

A proposition, based on five sub-propostions:
Today didactics has become necessary as the discipline which enquires what should be taught and why. This is above all

- because it is no longer directly possible to find out in a technical, scientific civilisation "what one needs for life", What.one is concerned by.

The term "concerned-ness", "being concerned" is a key category in the didactic approach of the author. We speak of being concerned by something in our existence when it is a matter of basic necessities (home, clothes, food), of well-being, self-realisation, the sense of life, the insight into existence, of conditions for survival and a life worthy of human beings - of all the things that are endangered or improved by social change. The two types of "concerned-ness" - subjective possibilities to experience being concerned by something (that is the essence of the 1st propostion), and being objectively concerned by something - are today diverging:

- because through socialisation, behavioral patterns for social and political behaviour are imprinted which are able to stand in contradiction to "what matters", or to put it briefly because in a time of global change "the cleverness of yesterday can become the stupidity of tomorrow" (v. Krokow)

Neither the mutual dependence of the preconditions for existence, nor the opportunities and limits for the gratification of needs, nor the necessity to implement equal opportunity, nor dangers for survival, nor even the contradictions between quantitative growth and the quality of life are mediated as elements of a general consciousness of problems by tradition

- because not only has the amount of diversity of what is knowable increased infinitely, but because the connexion between single pieces of information and their significance for the individual as well as for the whole of society can no longer be recognised;
- because even the information and behavioral patterns which are imprinted via the media (and influence behaviour at an increasing rate) do not draw a correct total picture of the conditions for existence;
- because the demand for self-determination and participation, which belong to the foundations of democracy can, as a result of unequal conditions for socialisation, only be inadequately put into practice.
  - as long as most people cannot realise what affects them,
  - what their true interests are,
  - how their own interests stand in proportion to generalisable interests and
  - how these interests which are not always in harmony with each other can be carried out.

to (3) Reasons for scientific didactics.
The necessity of didactics for academic teaching, for scientific didactics, could be deduced from the two previous connected reasons, and above all, from the explosion of knowledge within each discipline.

There are in addition further reasons

- the interdependence of the problems brought about by speedy change in all areas comes more and more clearly into prominence;
- cooperation among the disciplines to solve problems

is getting more and more urgent; the disciplines, however, are often able to be understood less and less within one discipline and above all between disciplines, because of advancing specialisation.

3.1.2. Didactics: What should be taught and why - how - and on which conditions?

From the reasons dealt with under 3.1.1 the tasks (dimensions) of didactics can be deduced in a first approach. Subject-specialised scientific didactics inquires into the following for all levels of teaching and learning -
1. What information about society and politics is of such general significance that it must be imparted to all if they are to be enabled to master their existence in a time of world-wide change, if they are to understand and judge what is of importance for life?
Asked, with regard to the distance study course: What results, insights, explanatory hypotheses of social sciences must be imparted because they are necessary for the explanation and judgment of problems that concern individuals, groups and society in their existence? What interests, value judgments and norms are important in this connexion?

2. As the discipline of the How, of the optimal use of learning processes, didactics asks:
- How, that is with help from which processes, media, and what organisation of the learning groups can single results and insights be imparted so that the learner realises, what he is concerned by: what each individual and particular factor means for his existence what general factor is reflected in each individual factor - so that he is enabled, to judge what matters and to act accordingly.
- How can what is subjectively (prescientifically) felt

be made rationally capable of being experienced through enlightenment?
- How are learning processes to be organised so that learners (students) do not just regurgitate isolated facts, but are able to recognise and judge what is of importance?

3. For the answer to the question according to the socio-cultural and anthropological preconditions of learning, didactics coordinates the results of research into socialisation, of social psychology and other anthropological disciplines with regard to the learning process. At the same time these results are the content of study and school lessons.

In the distance study course the socio-cultural preconditions for a change in attitudes are briefly outlined in the Prologue; in the phenomena study letters "Education and society", The changing function of the family" and "Problems of adolescence" they are broken down more fully into themes.

3.1.3. A survey of the features and elements of the didactic approach of the author which have been taken into the distance study course:

This didactic approach can be briefly outlined by the following features:
- by the existential approach to the subjective and objective concern of typical opportunities and dangers of our historical situation as they can be inferred from social scientific analyses;
- by a didactic (heuristic) instrumentarium made up of key concepts and expanatory questions which can help to identify objectives and contents, and to

justify, select and make them criticisable;
- by breaking down (not only exposing!) basic political decisions into topics with the help of three options for human dignity, for overcoming social inequality and for alternatives;
- by the attempt to justify these decisions not only historically, politically and didactically but also epistemologically
- by taking into account the cognitive learning theory in connexion with the theory of cognition, especially concerning the relation between the general and the particular;
- by the proposition of a fundamental structural conformity of academic and school didactics,
- by the view that didactic theory remains specualative, as long as it does not pursue its theorems and explanatory hypotheses into the individual steps of teaching and learning.

3.2 "Survival" and "a good life" as key concepts for a heuristic[+] didactic instrumentarium.

The context of the problem:
How does didactics arrive at criteria for objectives and contents? How can the infinite amount and diversity of living situations which individuals, groups and mankind must be qualified to master, be deduced from those situations that are "of significance"? What value judgments and interests are important here? The answers to these questions were given earlier by tradition, custom and norm; today they have to be legitimated by scientific methods. To this purpose there are in this conception the key concepts (categories) and key questions (categorial problems) of a heuristic instrumentarium,

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[+] We call those methods "heuristic" that use such questions for solving problems as seem suitable according to the state of the sciences.

they are collected in a matrix and placed in relation to each other.

3.2.0. "Survival" - "a good life" - a situational analysis.

The first step to the development of a didactic instrumentarium is to unfold - that is to distinguish, but not to separate! - the most general criterion "the significance for life" into the two criteria "the significance for survival" and "a good life".
To chose and validate (weight) information means: Situations are relevant, contents are necessary to be taught, in so far as they can be proved of significance for life in both dimensions.
The criteria "survival" and "a good life" are natually not accidental nor have they come from a subjective decision of the author. Rather the present state of discussion - as will be shown by the following - between two leading directions in the social sciences is relected in them: between empiric - analytical theories (also the systems theory), which primarily inquire into the conditions for survival, and the "Critical Theory of Society", which primarily inquires about a more just society.
In the next step it is a matter of what is ever understood by thecategories "survival", "situations", "a good life". This can be more easily grasped with the help of didactic key concepts and key questions. The heuristically used term "opportunities" and "dangers" can serve to work out the significance for existence.

3.2.1. The term "Survival".

With reference to "survival" the question is asked:

- by which living situations in which dangers and opportunities can be proved to exist are single people, groups and humanity greatly concerned today - and as far as can be predicted, tomorrow - according to the propostions of the social sciences (and other sciences of man)
- What changes - "challenges" - of the scientific - technical age, which involve chances and dangers, remain without (or without an adequate) political answer?

The didactic concepts opportunities and dangers and "challenges" can be more concretely unfolded when they are related to needs that are important to life. Therefore the further question can be asked.

- How far is it true that single groups, mankind are threatened by hunger, (a lack of the satisfaction of basic needs in the most general form), by oppression (from the concentration camp to velvet glove manipulation) and by physical destruction?
- What chances for the satisfaction of needs, self-determination, collective determination and peace exist (are - why? - withheld) in a historical situation, characterised by global change?

Methodic notes:

1. The didactic concepts which have been called "dangers" and "opportunities" here, have been chosen just as unarbitrarily as the terms "survival" and "a good life". On the contrary they are found in the analyses of academics of the most divers disciplines and views and so have proceeded from a text-critical analysis of concepts including general situational analyses.

Two Texts as Examples

"The division of mankind into two camps threatens it with destruction. Civilisation is endangered: by a general thermo-nuclear war, by starvation on a huge scale, by the narcosis of mass culture and burocratic dogmatism as well as by a spread of mass myths, which bring whole peoples and continents into the power of horrible, mendacious dictators, and lastly by the destruction of and damage to fertility, brought about by the rapid changes in the conditions of life on our planet". (A.D. Sacharow 1968, S. 10)

"The dangers that threaten us can be formulated in the following key words: The physical extermination of mankind or a large part of it together with the destruction of man's habitat (his vital living environment); the pauperisation of a large proportion of what we might call the "two-thirds world"; the repression of mankind everywhere in the world; the destruction of the essential foundations for life in mankind's natural environment; the psychic deformation of mankind in the north and south, east and west." (Flechtheim 1969, p. 311 f.)

2. We are talking here about "survival"; however, what is called "opportunity" and what is called "danger", depends - quite equally whether considered or not - on basic political decisions and value judgments.

3.2.2. Key concepts for further features of our historical situation.

Through the following fundamental changes, which can be understood as challenges to a rational mastering of the situation, our historical situation differs from all that has gone before: In this connexion world-wide interdependence - industrial mass production, possibilities for self-destruction and the destruction of the foundations of life (and also the dependence on intermediary instead of primary experinece) are continally named.
For every "challenge" there are corresponding consequences like:

- the necessity for global regulations - the endangering of self-determination (interdependence or dependence);
- the possibilities for satisfying needs -social inequality and a structure of needs controlled from outside (industrial mass production);
- the necessity for global regulations - regional inequality and nationalism (the possibilities for self-destruction)
- the avalanche of information - the news monopoly and a lack of categories of interpretation with reference to what is important to existence.

It is possible with an analysis set out in this direction for the amount of thinkable living situations, the infinite number of possible answers to the question of survival to lead back to that information needed to be able to judge possibilities for political action
Some limiting remarks: To most didactic key concepts there are not yet any "correct", reliable answers possible, not even if the questions were asked emphatically and with scientific and didactic intent by the disciplines themselves. Moreover questions like the one about the possibilities for mankind's survival and about "social indicators" (about ascertainable features for the living chances of social groups) have only lately been asked academically.

However: With a situational analysis in didactics it is not primarily a matter of verifiable, decisive answers. It is more a matter of recognising the basic problems where a relative consensus of opinion among social sciences prevails over their importance.

3.2.3. The category "a good life".

The Aristotelian term "agood life" (which has accompanied philosophical contemplation ever since as a regulative idea) is not concerned with information about what 'is' or 'will be', rather about what should be.
Here we find the problem if and how far should and may norm decisions be taken into consideration at university and school. It is first of all a political problem: How far is it defensible in a democracy to allow socio-political ideas on norms to play a part in choosing objectives and contents? It is also a problem of scientific theory: How far and with what methods can ideas on norms be founded scientifically.
Because, as has already been stated, in the Federal Republic of Germany it is hardly possible to count on a consensus of opinion, this problem is especially crucial for us. Therefore it will be dealt with rather more completely in the next section 3.3 (In addition the paper from Dr. Minssen deals with the political formulation of the question.)
Here only a short reason is given why norm decisions are taken into the heuristic instrumentarium:
Value judgments go into selection criteria and features of structure if a teacher wants to be or is supposed to be subjectively "above bias". The categories that have here been brought together under "opportunities" and "dangers" show that "survival" and "a good life" differ but cannot be separated.

The category the quality of life " can also serve to clarify the context: "The quality of life" is to be found neither in the golden cage nor for the free in the barrel of Diogenes. The category, "the quality of life" has quickly become a political slogan and yet is essential as a contemporary formulation of a "good life". It provokes inquiry into criteria and indicators for a life worth living and makes problematic the contradiction of technical tasks that have been solved and human-social ones that have not.

In the didactic conception that is the basis of the distance study course the political norm decisions are brought together in three options[+]

- to assure the Basic Personal Rights (liberal-conservative component of the concept of human dignity)
- to create the political prerequisites for all to freely develop their personality and to overcome social inequality, for equal opportunity, self and collective determination (emancipation); (social component the concept of human dignity);
- to accept the necessity of keeping, improving and creating anew the scope and institutions for political alternatives.

The three options are an attempt to reduce a larger number of learning objectives in the affective domain to comprehensible essentials.

[+] The didactic concept "Option": After the Peace of Augsburg (1555) the decision of each citizen to belong to the territory of a prince with a particular religion was called an "option" (from the latin optio, the free expression of will, choice, wish.) Later it was the decision to take one nationality. For several years it has been applied to the decision in favour of a particular system of government or society. From this came the didactic use of the term, first of all in 1967 by the author, e.g. in Handbook of Research on Teaching, vol. III, Sp. 2642, (German edition) and since then more frequently among other didactics experts. The didactic use of the term differs from the political in that the act of decision itself is not meant but the decision determined by contents.

3.2.4. The tension and antinomies between "survival" and a "good life" and the options.

Explanation of terms: Antinomy, the contradiction of a proposition within itself or of two propostions that can each claim to be correct.
Between the capabilities to master the problems of survival and to make the conditions for a life worth living in the sense of the options, there exists a state of tension e.g.

"Survival" demands cooperation - the necessity for cooperation diminished the possibility for personal development and personal realisation. Similarly there is a situation of tension between "prosperity" and "well-being". Even within the options a state of tension can be seen (and broken down into topics!) e.g.
Between the protection of personal rights and the overcoming of inequality, between self-determination and collective determination: total participation by all in everything that concerns everyone would have to exclude self-determination; absolutely fixed self-determination would exclude binding regulations through collective determination. If this state of tension cannot be broken down into topics then the concepts must remain forms that can be filled in arbitrarily - either on an individualist or a collective basis.

3.2.5. Survey of the didactic instrumentarium as laid out in the Matrix (see Appendix Chapter 4)

Methodic note: the explanations about the columns in the Matrix are "supplementary materials" to help with the understanding of the conception, they are designed only for those members of the Conference who are especially interested and are therefore set out in the Appendix after the Matrix. This section here is purely a general view of the Matrix. The following overlapping didactic problems, directions for inquiry, categories, key concepts, qualifying remarks and skills are collected together in the five columns thus:

In column 1: Situational analysis
In column 2: fundamental categories in the cognitive domain. (Opportunities, dangers, compleentary references, decisive questions):
In column 3: Norm decisions (Options)
In column 4: several general qualifying factors.
In column 5: methodic-formal skills

Columns 1 - 5 are chiefly interrelated. Column 2 has a certain steering function. The author based the construction of the Matrix on the proposition:
Norm decisions, situational analysis, existential concern and consideration of "objective concernedness" are didactically inseparable:
Without a competent situational analysis and without existential categories there is no reduction in what is necessary for "survival" and a "good life"; without options there are no criteria for a desirable future and for affective objectives; without proof of objective concerns in subjective concerns and vice-versa there is no motivation for learning (as an alteration in behaviour), no contemplation and no innovation.

3.3 The problem of justifying norm decisions in the curricula of schools

The Context of the problem:
On the one hand:
As outlined in 3.0.1. it is not possible in the Federal Republic of Germany - in contrast to the USA - to count on a political consensus of opinion that could be simply transferred into norm decisions for the highest learning objectives of a curriculum. Party political polarisation, fundamental differences of interests and basic differences in political purposes appear to exclude a consensus .

On the other hand
However, without an agreement, be it ever so minimal, neither international negotiations nor constitutions, nor curricula would come into existence. Among others, existential, political and psychological arguments speak in favour of a didactic minimal consensus: "Survival is dependent on an indispensable minimum of common regulations; without an indispensable minimum of common beliefs the stronger can succeed ruthlessly every time; interests and alternatives can only be realised where the maxim "to agree to disagree" is valid.

The problem is formulating a consensus which does not exclude but deals with any dissent that has previously been found. In this way options are not expected to reflect an existing consensus; they should be capable of forming a consensus. They can be seen as "regulative ideas" (Kant) or even as "interests influencing the process of perception" (Habermas)

A minimal consensus of that kind must furthermore fulfil the following conditions:

- it must be made transparent (that is valid even for teaching materials);
- its contents must be based on politics, political science and as far as possible, didactic psychology; in addition there should also be the question of how far it can be justified using the methods of scientific theory.
- It must be open to question and refutation;
- it must, as far as possible, make allowances for the conditions (freedom of contradiction, consederation of proved facts, reference to other theories) that are quite generally valid for the formation theories.

In curricular terms options are the highest learning goals in the affective domain. As with every value judgment they have an effect on the choice and weighting of information. Making them lucid serves the demand for transparency and criticisablity.

3.3.1. Short explanations of the three options

Human dignity is understood in the first option as an affirmation of the claim on the unconditional value of personal human rights which are the result of the bourgeois revolution, in practice, of course, partly restricted to ranks or classes.
Let us now mention the historical reason:
Our conception of human dignity was prepared by ancient philosophy; by Roman legal statutes; in the notion that each individual has the same substantial worth which cannot be lost, introduced into the thinking of mankind through Christianity although not accomplished politically, contained in its shortest form in the "Habeas Corpus Act" (1679) and in its clearest in Kant's statements that man is to be regarded "as an end in himself" and "is exalted above all ends". Thus the first option refers essentially to the "defensive" dimension of human rights: as a barrier against the state and society interfering with the individual.
The second option involves the social and political dimension of human dignity, as can be deduced from the basic statutes of the Federal Republic. The option includes: social reality should match the proclaimed rights; state and society should create the conditions for overcoming social inequalities, for breaking down the barriers opposing a mature judgment and the claim on development; for making possible for all the process of individuation self-determination and collective determination.

The third option to accept the necessity for keeping, improving and creating the scope and institutions for alternatives, involves first of all the possibility given on principle in the statutes, to represent the alternatives corresponding to political interests. It extends, however, also to the production of equal opportunities to carrying out alternatives, and also achieves this through new institutional regulations. The option also includes that (more in the sense of the first option) basic, formal freedom of opinion must exist; alternatives must have "agents" rendering it possible to make transparent controversial interests and to have discussion about them; in addition that (more in the sense of the second option) institutions and structures are to be examined, altered and newly created if conflicts are already pre-decided through existing regulations or power structures. Negatively speaking, the option goes against every ban on thought and question and against the absolute fixing of an alternative solution, and even against the unquestioned acceptance of the existing forms of conflict settlement.

3.3.2. A few notes on the ability to form a consensus

The "essentials" formulated in the options cannot be diverted or determined without question. Four dimensions, among others, are to be considered when justifying the options - the historical-political and political scientific (development-theoretical and normative justification, the connexion of interests)

- the didactic (Why these three? Under which socio-cultural and psychological factors and reasons are they to be realised, and according to what conditions?)
- the pragmatic, also with reference to the possibilities of effective agreement.

- the theoretical-scientific, taking the various positions into account.

These reasons which are given in the Didactic Prologue (and which are able to lean on a consensus of the Academic Advisory Board), will not be given here because they are too extensive.

In western democracies the first and the third options can lean on an official, unasked for consensus of opinion. It is more difficult to find general agreement to the second option: "overcoming structural and social inequalities." In the Federal Republic, for example, the opinions of experts in political science are divided as to whether the formulation "a democratic and socially oriented federal state" (in Article 20:1 of the Constitution) presents a constitutional order or a description.

Social guarantees are indeed further developed in the Federal Republic of Germany (since the social legislation of Bismarck) than in other western states (with the exception of Sweden); but even in the Federal Republic structually conditioned inequality is still prevalent. Therefore the foundation of the option gains special significance:

A "material natural right", that is, compulsory claims on social basic rights - although it can be traced even in ancient times, in the social utopias of the middle ages, in the formulation "the pursuit of happiness" of the American Declaration of Independence - have only become political goals through the social movements of the last century. Among others they are the following developments and insights, through which the social option today must be able to count on a relatively broad consensus of opinion:

- Individuation, personalisation, self-realisation in the scientific-technical society depend to a great extent on the conditions of socialisation, that is, on societal, particularly economic preconditions.
- Discrimination against one social group is not only an offence against the claim for social justice; it is a mistake in the whole social structure;
- The development of the means of production through science and technology has made it possible basically to create "goods for all";
- Where too little effort is made to produce more social equality present social injustice is increased due to the existing power and property-owning structure;
- Investment for community projects (infrastructure) comes off badly - with irreversible consequences for what is called the "quality of life" today;
- Where too little opportunity exists for participation (in the widest sense) more and more areas of social life are taken out of public control.

In short: Forms of superfluous power which have proved to exist up to now are not only an unnecessary pattern of thinking; they can become today a danger to the freedoms of the citizen fought for in pre-technical societies, and also a danger to world peace.

3.3.3. The function of making norm decisions transparent even for school students.

Proposition: Norm decisions for curricula should often be made public and broken down into topics. Making them transparent contributes towards making considered personal decisions.

This occurred here with regard to both students and school students.

In the school text-book "See - Judge - Act" the options under the title "What matters for the authors of this book" are made transparent in the following way:

"Therefore the authors must say,
what the viewpoints were that made them choose the situations and information, what was the purpose of their questions, and why they consider the problems they have worked out to be basic ones. Only then can the reader check that they really are vital problems, and only then has he the possibility to resist the basic political decisions present in the authors' purpose. If one only needed to cause this or that to happen in order to bring about the desired solution, have the consequences been thought of?

So one can ask the question: what does this or that suggested solution mean:

- for the dignity of man, as it is laid down in the basic, human rights? Will the solution be relatively perfect - but at the price of limiting those rights both in existence and fought for in the course of history?
- for the dignity of man in the sense of emancipation, in the sense of the development towards self-determination. That is, for the opportunities of improving the conditions of this dignity (in education, at the place of work, at the university, etc.), or will this solution reduce or even hinder the chances of more collective determination in the public domain?
- for the citizens' chances of equality? - Or will this solution only benefit an influential group while the chances of the others are limited?
- for the right both to discuss the consequences of a solution and make counter-suggestions (alternative suggestions) and to get organised in order to bring such alternatives to effect in the political struggle. Does this right remain reserved for one group in some way?

If someone has asked such questions it does not mean to say he has answered them as well. He has carried out a basic political decision - in favour of emancipation, equal opportunity and the possibility of the alternative". (See - Judge - Act, p.304)

3.3.4 The difficulty of scientific justification.

Options are first of all pre-scientific because they are political value-judgments according to the view of empiric-analytical sciences. They cannot be verified or proved to be false in an intersubjectively examinable way using the methods of these sciences. What we call here the option "Alternative", representatives of Critical Rationalism describe as the essential precondition before the scientific approach can become at all possible. Hypotheses, however, which like the one on equality are not accessible to any mathematicising process nor to any experimental examination because of their complexity, cannot be proved to be "correct" or "false" intersubjectively by using positivist methods. All that is verifiable and evident up to a certain point is that the "insight into equality" like the "option for equality" has more or less fixed, theoretical and practical consequences.

In opposition to this there is the view of the Critical Theory of Society (Frankfurt School, Horkheimer, Adorno, Habermas) that "in consideration of the world created by man science must not behave indifferently as it does so successfully in the exact natural sciences". (Habermas, 1971, p.11). The academic inquiry into the relation between "part" and "the whole", under the resective historical conditions, is the explicit subject-matter of this theory, according to which options are as "interests influencing the process of perception" open for justification on the principles of the theory of cognition.

It is not possible here to explain further the opposing views of both positions. However, because of the importance of the problem of justifying value-judgments a short survey of the methodic differences will be given in the following Digression 1. There is also another reason for this: Other authors will presumably not see the relation between the two positions as being complementary (as here) but rather as being between opposite alternatives. However both views, the complementary and the alternative, belong to academic discussion in the Federal Republic.

3.3.5 Digression 1
Justification pattern on the basis of scientific theory for the didactic instrumentarium

Purpose:
The digression is intended to outline briefly the basic possibilities of a scientific justification for value-judgments and selection criteria; it is intended in addition - because of the complicated nature of the subject, as

a very first approach - to clarify the suitability of a complementary relationship (dependent on mutual supplementing) between the various approaches of scientific method.

On empiric - analytical theories

Intersubjectively examinable statements of fact and hypotheses can only be investigated by using empiric-analytical methods. Only by observation, forming hypotheses, and examination using experiments consisting of measuring and mathematical methods is it possible to investigate problems "on the border between knowledge and non-knowledge" (Popper), and thereby to extend the border even further. It is also necessary to split up problems into factors accessible to measurement.
The demands of Critical Rationalism (Popper, Albert) present a decisive methodic step forward which entails exposing all results to refutation again. Not only was the development of the natural sciences furthered by this process, but also the significance was demonstrated for the progress of scientific inquiry of an open society permitting all examination. Which of the infinite number of thinkable boundaries between knowledge and non-knowledge deserves to be extended is left by empiric-analytical theories to personal or collective decisions, which they consider to be un- or prescientific because they do not coincide with their methods. It is possible up to a certain point to find out empirically what prejudices and attitudes go into value-judgments; it is possible to say what should or should not happen according to various sections of the population; the representatives of Critical Rationalism do see poverty and hunger and ignorance as problems: but Critical Rationalism does not have a "better" or a "worse". It can only investigate, and occasionally predict, the - measurable - success of any decisions.

The Critical Theory Of Society[+]

In opposition to this the Critical Theory of Society (Frankfurt School: Horkheimer, Adorno, Habermas) starts emphatically with an "emancipatory interest in cognition" as an idea "that we have fully mastered in the sense of philosophical traditions". (Habermas, 1969. p.163); Society is understood as "a problem in the emphatic (forcible, of the author) sense" (Adorno); it asserts the "dependence of single phenomena" on the whole of society and understands this relationship to be "reciprocal"; it is related always and essentially "to the relationship between the general and the particular as formed by history".(Habermas, 1971 p. 17) It considers the investigation of this relationship to

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[+] The Critical Theory of Society (Frankfurt School) is not a uniform scientific system (as, for example, can be seen from the controversies between Habermas and Marcuse); and it is being constantly developed, especially by Habermas, in discussions with other theories. Here it is a matter of its basic approaches in thought and methods as they have been expanded in the "quarrel on positivism" between Critical Theory and Critical Rationalism and since developed further chiefly by Habermas.

be more important than correct statements on single phenomena, even if the investigation does not produce any perfect answers: "Without an abnormal, inexact relationship to things no insight would be any more than a classifying repetition." (Adorno,1970, p.45)
In the same way the Critical Theory of Society talks about "Dialectics of enlightenment"; freedom is inseparably linked to elucidating thought; limiting everything to statements of fact withers the theoretical imagination and thereby the possibility of thinking of something better. Elucidation must break this tension down into themes. (cf. Horkheimer/Adorno, 1947, p.7f)
The Critical Theory of Society concedes that objectivity of statements of fact exists at the result controls that set the analytical-empirical sciences in operation. However, it insists that objectivity of experiences and "truth" of a theory of society are each only proved by the successful argumentation in a repression-free dialogue leading to a rationally based consensus. When it talks about "totality" and the reciprocal relationship between a person and society it does not mean a closed system of statements. A "marxist embellished orthodoxy" is decisively rejected. (cf. Habermas, 1973, p.195).
One of the objections to this approach is that the dialogue - chiefly in controllable groups - can remain tied to coinings and partial interests, and through this the significance of the institutions, for example, is also underestimated. However, the Critical Theory always includes the overlapping, indirect dialogue of humanist science: the results of philosophical and historical discussions about the purposes of society and the relationship between the individual and society. At the same time it also uses the hermeneutic-historical methods of the philosophical and historical sciences.

Comparison of the deficiencies of both positions.

Below, in summary form, is a (simpified) comparison of the deficiencies of both positions as part of a justification for a complementary relationship:

Because they are closely bound to the method, the empiric-analytical sciences often do not see what exceeds methodic isolation; rationality can become "minced rationality". (v. Weisäcker)	Here there is the danger that the Critical Theory of Society thinks the desired into what is not yet methodically researchable. What does not coincide with the intention remains unquestioned.
Whatever cannot be measured is kept out of observation	What does not fit into the theory is not observed even if it were determinable.
One is trapped to the section the device is showing.	One neglects to expose the view of the whole to detailed examination.

There is extensive proof of the one-sidedness of both positions:

- the Critical Theory of Society was misunderstood by many students to be orthodox dogma.
- limiting everything to the measurable and convertable to mathematics and taking this as presumably the only scientific method prevented until a few years ago a not insignificant section of economic scientists from taking into account, in their calculations of costs, social extras and preconditions for production and expenses (environmental protection, the supply of raw materials, investment in energy).

It was possible to reveal this kind of self-limitation of model-thinking and gradually overcome it by consistent application of analytical- empirical methods; but the Critical Theory of Society which starts from the totality of economic and social contexts had already for a long time anticipated what was now also being proved empiric-analytically.

The consequences for didactic value-judgments.

Didactics that was limited to empiric-analytical methods would have to leave decisions about options to political statements. Instead of binding norms laid down as they used to be by an unquestioned canon of teaching materials, a pre--scientific arbitrariness would step in, not rational patterns of justification for the "better".

In addition it is the indecisiveness (inability to be decisive) of the discussion about scientific theory which makes it necessary to take both approaches into account. The author represents a complementary relationship between both positions, as can be seen in the argumentation here.

Along side this the view that empiric-analytical and socially critical ways of thinking are mutually exclusive is also represented. However, these one-sided views are represented increasingly more rarely. Excellent academics representing varying positions (Habermas, von Weizsäcker) are working in cooperation at the "Max-Planck-Institute for Research into the Foundations of Life in the Technical World" in Starnberg.

Where further development towards more humanity is desired, society must always be thought of differently, "better" than the existing one; on the other hand - so that wishes do not fail what is possible - it is necessary to impart what can be said with certainty about the existing society: interests influencing the process of perception or regulative ideas

- whatever the options are - can become dangerous illusions if they are transformed into action without reference back to what is possible and what can be experienced.

The Critical Theory of Society offers criteria and methods for determining the "better" each time, methods for investigating verifiably what can be experienced, the empiric--analytical scientific disciplines.

The option about overcoming social inequality cannot be "proved" just like that even with the Critical Theory. The theory is not concerned with"correctness" in the sense of the empiric-analytical method but with scientifically executable "truth"; it includes agreements which have been co-ordinated in the philosophical traditions and in the history of mankind.

Starting from these preconditions of thought it is possible (as outlined here very inadequately and in an abridged form) to deduce from the "interest of the individual in achieving majority", the same "objective interest of everyone, and that it is necessary to gain acceptance of this interest for oneself and everyone else - or not gain its acceptance at all.

Both positions differ from others because Critical Rationalism and the Critical Theory of Society have taken and are taking part in a discussion about academic theory with mutual recognition of basic rationality. Other positions offer a scientific basis for norm decisions according to their own self-understanding. (e.g. Like dogmatic marxism)

3.4 The relationship between scientific subject- specific systematics and teaching (problem) structure.

3.4.0 The context of the problem (and a few principles of the cognitive theory of learning.)

Structuring makes recognition and learning possible: it is described (e.g. by Bruner) as one of the decisive results of psychological research in the last 100 years that all details are forgotten that cannot be put into a structure pattern. "Detailed material is conserved in memory by the use of simplified ways of representing it. These simplified representations have what may be called a 'regenerative' character" (Bruner, 1960, p.24); it enables a large and complex amount of information to be conserved as in a formula and allows it to be transferred.

One learns when, from a particular concept in which a general concept is reflected, that general concept is made so clear that it can be reconsidered as a new particular concept - as a key concept, as a rule, as a problem. Formulated another way: whether something is learnt from what has been learnt about something that has been learnt depends on:

- whether the contents are structured using key concepts, criteria, key questions so that this allows, even forces, a form of generalisation;
- Whether and to what extent this generalisation procedure is itself clarified and learnt at the same time (cf. von Hentig, 1969,p.35).
- whether the opportunity is given to check the generalisation with new information.

This pulse beat of abstraction and re-concretisation characterises didactic thinking (as it does everything scientific); it enables cognitive structures to be built up (thought structures).
An example of how generalisation can be practised to a plan will be given in the Appendix under 4.2 "Waste".
Cognitive structures are formed by considering an area of reality according to certain features. The choice of the criterion follows (consciously or unconsciously) with an intention and has its effect on recognising, judging, and acting. It is, for example, obvious that a history lesson (or a work on history) which has dynasties or battles as its criteria, aims for other attitudes than a work on history that sets the criteria, "social progress" or "the overcoming of social inequalities". So the main problem is:
Should political education - and a distance study course - start from the system concepts (subject categories) of the social sciences? Should it restrict itself to them? Or should social studies start from its own, set categories?

3.4.1 The justification for the proposition that the categories of subject-specific systematics are not adequate.

For the following reasons subject-specific systematics are less suitable for giving structural criteria for lessons in social studies:

- The system concepts (subject categories) which help the disciplines to classify their results do not completely agree, as far as meaning is concerned, on the various directions within the social sciences.
- Gained from the point of view of comprehensive completeness, they hardly contain any criteria for choice in connexion with conveying essentially important results.
- They have increasingly lost sight of the original motive for their academic questioning and the interdisciplinary context of the problem.

One of the leading didactic experts in the Federal Republic, Blankerz, says about this:

> "If the mathematician, biologist, historian, or philologist inquires about the ability of his subject to be taught, if he thinks about the preconditions and methods of his discipline, if he determines the politico-social function of his research, he is not dealing with a mathematical, biological, historical or philological problem, but one of didactics or scientific theory. That is the difference! To see a specialist and formulate him as a problem does not mean to eliminate him but to challenge him to overcome his academic narrow-mindedness." (Blankerz, 1969, p.128)

The result is:

Didactic structural criteria cannot alone be taken from the subject categories and subject-specific systems of the social sciences. Didactic specialists agree on this for the most part. In the didactic concept represented here fundamental concepts and problems form a predominate structural principle of teaching and learning.

They are the categories and problems, the opportunities and

dangers and options of the Matrix. These are oriented on the problems of the present, the interdependence of the phenomena, the meaning for life, the meaning for the present and the future - or whatever one likes to call the existential point of departure.
Unlike Bruner I represent, then, the view that learning structure and the "structure of knowledge" are not identical in the social sciences (see also Digression III, 3.4.5).

3.4.2 The relationship between specialised and didactic types of problem-raising in this distance study course.

As outlined in 2 (Structure) this distance study course tries to connect the specialised, subject systematic and didactic types of question with each other.
In the sociology, political science, jurisprudence and economic science "Grammars" subject systematics structuring is predominate. The choice was basically made in answer to the following questions: What must the social studies teacher in middle and upper schools know,

- if he wants to survey and understand the discipline;
- if he needs subject-specific answers in order to evaluate problems;
- if he wants to judge what the discipline can do in addition for interdisciplinary questions, and also what the other disciplines must know about his discipline;
- if he wants to find extensive information;
- if he is to become qualified to meet both the learners' and his own "indigenous" prejudices?

However, the Grammars also contain parts or chapters that are conceived more according to the problems of academic didactics.
In part A of the Grammar on Law the social function of law is discussed; the Sociology Grammar starts from the existential problems of this discipline;

In choosing and structuring the sub phenomena in the study letters, as in measuring the information, the authors have oriented themselves on a problem that can be solved in two ways: starting from the (sub) phenomena, and starting from the system concepts, theorems and results of the disciplines concerned each time.

Based on the phenomenon: Which concepts, theorems, results of special disciplines do I need to be able to recognise, evaluate, and solve the political, social, economic and legal problem represented in the phenomenon?

Based on the special discipline: There are concepts or theorems which are, according to the self-relation of the special discipline, indispensable because they make understanding of the discipline possible. For which general and specific concepts or theorems does the (sub) phenomenon give something away (without force being used on it)?

In short:

What can be exemplified (recognised as an example) by means of the phenomenon from that which is necessary for understanding the discipline?

For the latter, reference is made wherever possible and necessary to the Grammars.

In turn the Grammars refer to the study letters on phenomena where they offer more detailed and specific information about a matter connected with the subject.

> In other words:
> How much knowledge of facts, concepts and methods is an indispensable precondition before a more important, more general learning goal can be reached?
> Or asked the other way round: Is this knowledge of facts, concepts and methods really necessary in order to reach a more general goal? Is there so much that generalises, permits and is representative in it that it is suitable as a step on the way to a more general goal?

3.4.3 As already stated, this concept owes a lot to the American psychologists who developed the theory of cognition.

In this distance study course the theory of cognition is taken into consideration in, among others, the following respect:

- the total content is classified according to leading viewpoints, corresponding to the most general points of inquiry, in many of the titles for example.
- intentions are made clear in order to pre-structure the information.
- frequently information is reduced to general statements and then unfolded into single pieces of information again.
- the summarising tables and surveys are to enable integration as well as differentiation.
- frequent cross-references are designed to serve re-integration.

In opposition to this many prompts are more like "reinforcements" in the sense of the learning theory of behavioral psychology.

Nevertheless this concept differs above all in two ways from Bruner's:

- in the criteria for choice and weighting;
- in the concept "the structure of knowledge".

3.4.4 Digression II

Some differences between this concept and J.S.Bruner'

Despite "more progressive" approaches and a humane total intention, Bruner lacks criteria for the selection and weighting of politico-social objectives.

Bruner does go beyond a "technical" or only "practical" interest in cognition with several statements: The definition of educational goals should assure "such freedom and rationality as can be attained for a future generation." (1966, p.22). He declares himself in favour of "studying th possible rather than the achieved, if one wants to correspond with change." (1966, p.36); and he structures a course in anthropology for the early grades according to the questions: "what is human about a human being? How did he get that way? How can he be made more so?" (1966, p.74) These formulations do not, however, satisfy the demands of the second option (the overcoming of social inequality):

- Bruner understands fundamental ideas and basic principles occasionally as questions (What is human about a human being?), that is, heuristically - not as a rule, but as a problem. Basically, however, (as has also happened with the concept-oriented American curricula) he can be misunderstood in passing as laying too much importance on general statements.

- Bruner talks about "the structure of knowledge" as if a structure were asserted in the system concepts of the disciplines, which is supposed to be at the same time the basic structure of teaching.

In opposition to this the view is represented here that the structure must be produced in the consciousness of the researcher and the learner through overlapping structure criteria - through categorial problems which are oriented on the significance for life and generalisable interests. These lead back to the original way of questioning of the disciplines.
I have discussed this problem in more detail in the Prologue to the distance study course. Digression III is reproduced here for those delegates who have already concerned themselves more fully with the problem "the structure of knowledge".

3.4.5 Digression III

"Structure of knowledge": Subjects systematics or fundamental problem structure?

There is a connexion between cognitive structure, scientific system and topical problems which (from the perspective of cognitive structure) can be described as follows:
"... cognitive structure is ..... understood as the condensate of past learning that the instruments, operations and systems are furnished with for current information processing and coming to terms with the social environment on the personality level". (Seiler, 1973,p.9)
Key questions:

- what role does the structure of the discipline itself have? Is it acceptable to say that each discipline has its own structure, that is, a system of interrelated principles, basic thoughts and key concepts on the one hand, and accompanying methods of research, evaluative processes and forms of communication on the other?
- or are the structural criteria determined by interests and intentions which, like problems of the present and the future, for instance, are not reflected, or no longer, or no longer visibly in the structure of the discipline?

Example:
Although the concepts for the classical state forms are still valid to classify all present-day states, they say little or nothing about their political reality.

In short:

- Is it enough to disclose available structures and prepare them as well as possible for the learner?
- Or must didactic structures , contexts that bring about meaning, be produced with transparent intent - and at the same time does this contain a more promising possibility for perception?

Bruner, together with other academics, appears to start with identifying the three approaches for structuring: fundamentals of the object: fitting details into "structured patterns"; understanding the "fundamental principles and ideas of the subject matter"; and comprehending the "fundamental character" seem to be stages of one and the same procedure. However, it remains unclear if the "fundamentals" of the disciplines can be directly read off - or if they only appear if the disciplines are questioned with a particular intention. Physicists, for example, interpret Bruner with the meaning of the first possibilities. Such unity of opinion cannot readily exist in the social sciences because in them fundamental concepts are unavoidably determined by interests. The question cannot be decided epistemologically either.

Our proposition that structures and structural criteria must be produced by viewing results of the disciplines from the aspect of fundamental points of questioning, is not refuted by the discussion about the concept of the structure of knowledge. Nevertheless this concept remains a challenge to academic thought: Humboldt's idea, "to deduce everything from an original principle", Derbolav's concept of the "categorial linking of areas of specialisation" (1957, p.61f) and also Wagenschein's concept of the "communicating element", which is attained the deeper one penetrates into the fundamentals of a subject (1953, p.56) - all these concepts demand to be methodically transferred. To do this it is always a matter of illuminating mutual disclosure of the problem structure and the systematics of the subject, especially in the domain of university teaching and studying.

To summarise: "Structuring" is not primarily for political didactics a question of better learning or studying. Structuring is a precondition and the methods of cognition, that is, the mental mastery of multiple information with regard to its "meaning" (in this double dimension "survival" and a "good life"). Therefore without structuring there is no possible connexion between theory and practice.

3.5 Some remarks on teaching method and style of communication.

We will start from the proposition : didactic theory is an unscientific speculation, as long as it does not pursue its hypotheses into the individual steps of the lesson. So the Prologue also contains examples of lessons. The study letters on phenomena contain parts and elements which can be directly used in lessons.

Of course, examples alone are not sufficient. Whether learning objectives can be reached depends to a large extent on the teaching methods and style of communication. So a more extensive part has been inserted into the Didactic Prologue of the distance study course, which deals with the HOW of teaching, that is, with the question: by using what processes, media, group organisation can results and insights be imparted in such a way that the student, or learner, is qualified to evaluate and act?

Here I shall only give two examples:

- a modification of the method of problem solving.
- and several propositions on the significance of the style of communication and teaching.

3.5.1 The method of problem solving.

Methods of problem solving as they have been suggested by Dewey and processed by Metcalf for social studies in the USA are mostly oriented on the methods of the natural sciences: recognition of the problem hypotheses - working out the consequences - examination of suggestions - drawing conclusions, are the steps which, for example, Hunt/Metcalf (1955, p.61) suggest. These steps reappear in various variations.

We believe that methods for social studies must always include the dimension of interests, the inquiry into power structures as well; in other words: The questions of the didactic instrumentarium must be reflected in the method. This means that target conflicts and the differing types of concern of social groups must have a place in solutions and hypotheses.

In this way the following steps ensue:

1. Confrontation with a situation containing problems (a "case", a phenomenon) and recognition of subjective, objective concern.
2. Recognition of, and, if necessary, reducing the problem to its "general" meaning. (1st formation of a hypotheses)
3. (First) inquiry into the facts necessary for evaluation. (What has to be known if one wants to come to grips with a problem.)
4. Possibilities for solutions to, or ways of settling the problem.
5. Evaluation of the solutions with regard to group interests - generalisable interests.

(Anticipation of the consequences of the possibilities)

6a. Possibilities for concrete political participation.	6b. Transferring to other, similar situations/ problems.
("ACTION")	(Further "THINKING")

It is decisive that the learners become qualified to plan the steps themselves and to complete and evaluate them.

3.5.2 Propositions on the significance of teaching communication or the style of teaching.

The most didactically rational and methodically apt teaching can neither reach cognitive objectives nor touch upon the attitudes of the learner if the following preconditions are not fulfilled:

- The intended perceptions, options, ways of behaviour must determine the course of the lesson - as the "appearance of a democratic way of life";
- they must be reflected in the behaviour of the teachers - in their style of communication and interaction;
- the learning groups must be acquainted with criteria for evaluating the style of teaching and with possibilities of seeing it; they must become qualified to learn, "not only in school, but through school". (v. Hentig);

- the learning groups must have the opportunity to develop corresponding types of behaviour and in lessons to take part increasingly in self-determination.

These demands are being proved by numerous investigations; there are no results of any investigation that contradict them.

> "In order to attain the formulated objective it is in no way indifferent if the teacher strives for them with an authoritarian or a democratic style of teaching ..... The interaction within the school and within the lesson is vitally important for transfer. Without a reform of social interaction the attainment of learning objectives can hardly be assured ..." (Brocher T.: in:Protokoll des Lehrgangs 13o8a/1968 des Hessischen Instituts für Lehrerfortbildung - the minutes of the course 1308a/1968 of the Hessian Institute for the further Education of Teachers.)

Demands for a change in the style of teaching will remain ineffective and empty as long as they do not link up with them corresponding attitudes and concepts: Ways of acting and behaving must be made observable, nameable and at least capable of reflection.

This means: Concrete tasks must be trained for teachers and school students as well as an elementary instrumentarium for self-regulation and self-evaluation. It is superfluous to say that in this field didactics in the Federal Republic owes a lot to stimulation from America. (for example: H.H. Anderson, Lewin, H.M.Brewer)

4. Appendix: Texts and examples from the distance study course Social Studies.

Survey

4.1.1 Matrix (See fold out, pp 49a/b/c)

4.1.2 Some explanations of the five columns in the Matrix

MATRIX

Overlapping categorial problems, problem approaches and key concepts (categories)

Their purpose is:

1. **To serve as criteria for the selection and validation of sub phenomena, situations, and subject-matter statements in studies and school lessons.**
2. **To help with the construction and development of a cognitive structure.**

Human Needs

"CHALLENGES" (categorial problems) of the historical situation

1. Answers - and their deficiency in analyses of the social sciences.

"Basic" Needs

A

1) Technical mass-production makes the satisfaction of needs and uniformity of consumption possible.
   - growing inequality in the satisfaction of needs and powers at one's disposal/distortion of the structure of needs through interest in profit and political manipulation of needs.
2) The pressure towards planning, cooperation and work discipline.
   - misuse of material pressures for power interests, prevention of planning for the future through group interests.
3) The necessity for regulations and innovations.
   - continuation of regulations and role definitions which have grown out of a pre-industrial, pre-technical, pre-scientific, pre-emancipatory state of mind.
4) Polarisation, specialisation and burocratisation of the work and administrative processes.
   - the accumulation of power where there is a lack of control and a lack of participation by the base.

"Emancipatory" Needs

B

1) Danger to the individual (and personalisation) through the pressures of the system.
   - prevention of alterations to the system through privatism, a state of non-alignment, manipulation.
2) The need for security caused by social change, anonymity, complexity of relationships.
   - the need for security as a barrier to innovations.
3) Postulation of liberal freedoms.
   - limitation through the lack of socio-cultural preconditions.
4) Growth of communication and leisure time.
   - controlled deficit of information and dividing up of news.
   - the deficit in education as a possibility for manipulation through a monopoly of the media.

5) The dependence of the fate of the individual on political decisions.
   - lack of enlightenment as a barrier for the awareness of interests and for exerting influence.
6) Continually new conflicts, brought about or made worse by societal, political, economic change or by conflicts that have been solved.
   - veiling or solving of conflicts through groups in power or through a state of mind manipulated by these.
7) The avalanche of information and complexity as causes for concentration and consolidation of authority and interests.
   - The monopoly of authority as an obstacle for the control and circulation of power and for participation.
8) The revolution in education as a precondition for the mastery of existence and participation.
   - increases in effectivity without regard for the claim on emancipation or for socio-cultural preconditions.

"Security" Needs

C

1) The growth of destructive potential.
   - unused possibilities for solving conflicts rationally.
2) Interdependence of vital interests.
   - negative internalisations and group interests as causes for aggression.
3) The complexity of interests and inconsistency of the preferences.
   - ideologies as a perfect explanation for existence and as a means of power.
4) Necessity for recognition of the "limits to growth", planning of an infrastructure for the world.
   - destruction of the biological substance of the earth through exhaustion of the soil, wasteful production, manipulated needs.

4. **Qualifications**, made up of cognitive and affective elements, thought out to produce a productive answer to the challenges. (In the formulation the complementary coordination is made visible by + and -)	5. **Methodic-formal skills** The students' mastery of these can be mostly assumed. However, exemplary teaching models should take these formal skills into consideration as far as possible.
+Recognition of one's own position and one's social conditions +Recognition and analysis of politically relevant conflicts, taking sides and exertion of influence in the conflict -Reflection obout which new conflicts can grow out of solved ones +An alternative way of thinking which considers controversies -Mastery of inconsistemcies +Considered solidarity -Rational resistance, opposition, non-acceptance +Behavioral security -Questioning of norms -Understanding of which "secondary pressures" are caused by the necessity for common planning, which are caused by society and therefore are to be checked and need to have their function questioned +Analysis and realisation of one's (group/class) interests -Recognition of genuine interests of the whole +Engagement in changes which help towards emancipation -Recognition of the limits of autonomy +Criticism and -Counter-criticism +Analysis of social reality -Social imagination +Faith in the rules -Questioning of the rules on equal opportunity +Civil courage and the power to carry things through -Ability to compromise and consideration of the means to do so +Political engagement -Control of emotional responses, flexible response and frustration tolerance +Ability to cooperate -"Ambivalent relations towards an object" (without loss of the ability to act) Anticipation of the consequences of alternatives	Preliminary remark: the development of methodic-formal skills is rarely systematically trained in the Federal Republic. In the USA and Eastern Block countries there are tested catalogues of skills mostly learnt under the control of the student himself. (cf. 3.1.4) e.g. Techniques of discussion. Interpretation of statistics, graphs and diagrams. Methods of work in the social sciences. Recognition and evaluation of the respective "concern" (primary-secondary, "existential") Basic consideration of alternatives. Reflection on the scale of political means (enlightenment - incentive,e.g. economic - sanction(again a scale) - force) Reduction of a statement to its essence. Ability to perform abstraction, re-concretisation and transfer, that is, the ability to recognise and recognise again categorial problems.

Formulated simply
One must be capable of,e.g.:

saying yes	and	saying no -
obeying laws	and	forming resistance -
representing one's own interests	and	not losing sight of the interests of the community -
planning ahead	and	being open to possible changes in this planning -
fighting with all one's power for the growing autonomy of man	and	considering the consequences of the means that have been applied so that they do not obstruct the attainment of the goal just through their application

(Hilligen, See - Judge - Act, p.106)

FUNDAMENTAL CATEGORIES

Cognitive domain "Survival" and "a good life" 2. a) dangers and opportunities b) complementary connexions to be understood dialectically c) abstract decisive questions	Affective Domain Options, "a good life" 3. (= interests influencing the process of perception or political norm decisions)
a) Lack - Satisfaction of needs through technology and science. b) The state of being materially interested - Dependence on the condition of society c) Who - from whom - for whom - what for - how much? Who decides?	A. for the production of economic preconditions for survival and for material preconditions for social equality
a) Oppression - "freedom" ("emancipation" cf.V) b) Autonomy - adaptation Self-determination - the pressure of the system c) How much scope - how much norm and regulation?	B. for the inviolability of the human rights of all (liberal component of human dignity)
a) Manipulation participation b) Solidarity - control and resistance c) How much indirect (representative) how much direct democracy?	for the necessity of producing personal dignity, amancipation, participation for all, for the overcoming of "fundamental divisions" (social component of human dignity)
a) Self-destruction of mankind - coexistent survival through the settling of conflicts b) The will to carry something through - readiness to compromise c) Which means endanger the objective?	C. for the renunciation of "destruction that can wipe out whole species", for the preservation of the possibilities for creative discussion, for progressing humanisation in the face of the ideology of growth

for the necessity to create and maintain the scope and institutions for alternatives

4.2 Waste, an example of the formulation of learning objectives with the aid of the Matrix.

4.3 Example of a text under the sub heading "the context of the problem".

4.4 Example of the possibility of developing general learning objectives.

4.5 Preliminary remark on the phenomenon study letter "Needs...."

4.6 Example of the analysis of the phenomena of social change.

4.1.1 The Matrix is on fold out pages 49a/b/c.

4.1.2 Some explanations of the five columns of the Matrix.

Column 1 contains results of situational analyses in the social sciences. "Opportunities" and "dangers" are interests guiding the process of cognition here, deduced both from the options and the inquiry into "survival".
Formulated another way: The summary is an attempt to name those "challenges" of our historical situation where "opportunities" and "dangers" are reflected. This complex summarises what is dealt with in detail in situational analyses in the social sciences, but reduced to the significant and general.
The first sentence each time contains a general statement about a particular aspect of the historical situation; the second sentence - after the dash - contains the corresponding deficiency: the obstacles, barriers, backwardness in states of mind, grievances, the elimination of which is the task of politics.
Expressed another way:
Which processes of change - "challenges" of the scientific -technical age that produce opportunities and dangers remain without a political answer (or without an adequate one)?
The double sentences show briefly the discrepancy between the possible and the desirable, between existing and possible reality; through them tasks for politics and causes of social conflicts can be recognised.

Column 2 "Survival, the cognitive domain"

The key concepts of column 2 are extremely general summaries of the concrete situational analyses of column 1; on the other hand the concrete situations of column 1 are developed from the pairs of concepts for "dangers" and "opportunities" Under a) more concrete dangers and opportunities are given. From these pairs of concepts complementary categories are developed under b). The possibilities for action dealt with here appear in the broadest sense. They can contribute to overcoming the dangers and making the most of the opportunities.

Examples:

A lack can be prevented by "personal efforts", through " the state of being materially interested" and through recognition of ones dependence on the condition of society and by taking corresponding action. The latter is prevalent in our historical situation, even from the viewpoint of the realisation of interests. One of the decisive complementary connexions comes into being in the relation between autonomy and adaptation, between self-determination and the pressures of the system. In the sense of the second option, abolishing oppression, the area of things that have rules must be limited and above all must be withdrawn from the grasp of personal power. On the other hand survival is not possible without binding regulations.
Even the relationship between direct collective determination and the delegation of responsibility to elected representatives, between the "base" and "competence" - an essential part of the problem of democracy - requires complementary modes of action. The option for the extension of participation, at least of control by the base, has precedence here.
Both of the complementary, interrelated political modes of action named in row C, "the will to carry something through" and " readiness to compromise" have become necessary through the historical situation for the survival of mankind (and the reason for the new scientific branch of research into peace and conflict).

Abstract decisive questions are formulated under c). These are the most general formulation of categorial problems: they are a reduction to their most general forms of provable, political issues, pre-eminent in our historical situation.

It is a matter of the following questions:

Under A (hunger - the satisfaction of needs):

How can the possibilities for the satisfaction of needs be distributed more fairly? Who is to give, keep, receive how much for whom or for what?

Under B (oppression - self-determination):
How much is to be/must be bindingly regulated through whom, how much is to be/must be left open?

(manipulation, participation):
How much direct participation, how much representation?
How can the control be regulated?

Under C (self-destruction - peace):
Which means for power are to be used to attain goals?
Which of them endanger the goals? (cf. the scale of political means in column 5)

Column 3 "a good life" (options, the affective domain, norm decisions)

The options are ordered roughly into the areas A, B, C as well. But here we must consider the option on the necessity for keeping and creating the scope and institutions for alternatives as overlapping. The more "social" aspect of the second option is located under A and the more political aspect under B.

Column 4 "Qualifications"
Columns 4 and 5 can no longer be ordered into the rows A, B, and C. Even the qualifications are formulated in a complementary way. Here it is not intended that a "both one and the other" attitude should be practised; rather the students and school students should develop the habit of "anticipating the consequences of alternatives".

Column 5 "methodic-formal skills".
The learning of skills and methods is further developed in the USA than in the Federal Republic. I include among methodic skills training in the use of categorial questions.

4.2 Waste - an example of formulating learning objectives of differing grades of abstrsction using the

4.2 Waste - an example of formulating learning objectives of differing grade of abstraction using the Matrix.

The following explanations were designed to make clear to the authors of the distance study letters how didactic connexions between the categories of the Matrix and the respective learning objectives(up to operationalised, that is, examinable sub-goals) can be produced.

1. Didactic preliminary remarks.

Learning goals in the phenomena study letters as opposed to those in the "Grammars" are structured by the political and social priorities, by the existential significance of the chosen phenomena. All specialised information, facts and data must be legitimated as necessary to be learnt in order to evaluate sub-phenomena, situations and alternatives; the extent of the systematics is controlled by the problem itself.
It is appropriate that the author bases his choice of the sub-phenomena and the definition of the learning content on a problem that can be solved in two ways, explained here under 3.4.2 .

"Waste" as an example of the location and formulation of learning goals

The location of general learning goals in the Matrix - and the exemplary quality (representability) of the phenomenon.

Pollution of the environment is explicitly referred to under "Challenges C4" in the Matrix. "Destruction of the biological substance of the earth" is (next to atomic death) one of the "dangers" increasingly mentioned in predictions. Measures (plans) to ward off the danger touch directly on the general question 1,Ac in the Matrix (Who - by whom, etc.), and also on the question 1,Bc (How much scope - how much norm and regulation), which in return touches on the political question of 1,Ac.
One could consider the aspect of the options as incidental; however: "Nothing less than the dignity of man is violated by destruction of and damage to his environment ....." (Home Secretary Genscher on the 16.12.1970 in the Bundestag).
The question "latitude (non-regulation) or norm" is also asked in its variation on the federal level: "more authority for the Federation" is one demand which led to a new law. In this respect the "challenge A2 and 3" is also affected.
Proposition: A phenomenon that cannot be located is not valid for the study letters. Basically it might be possible to exclude learning goals about authority, about pollution caused by profit mania, etc.. However, "waste" must not just be a "way in"; all politically relevant objectives should be drawn in, especially when the subject is "being talked about".

General learning goals of the phenomenon "Waste" that are suitable for transfer:
The phenomenon "Waste" serves (like "Water" and "Air" and also, for example, "Children's Playgrounds") to exemplify the general learning goal: needs which were satisfied in a pre-industrial society naturally and without special provision, which were non-existent as "needs", have to be satisfied today by means of societal regulation, politics. In addition: satisfied needs (e.g. clean packaging) bring new ones into being.

Further, general objectives

Problems recognised too late bring dangers (for instance, the institutions can be asked about their lack of ability for innovation: the question can be asked about the amount of the economic order in private hands). Is capitalism to blame - as is very often claimed? The answer requires information about the amount of industrial pollution here and in other economic systems, and above all about the possibilities, here as well as there, for finding solutions (who is going to pay for the solutions, i.e. "who - by whom - what for ...").
It has already been mentioned what possibilities the topic contains for transfer (the same and similar approaches for Air, Water, Playgrounds).

Learning goals can also include:
- the recognition of primary (the smell from rubbish dumps) and secondary concerns through the gradual destruction of the foundations of life, especially in conurbations.
- learning or the application of four possibilities, typical of reality, for change: explanation - aid from society (e.g. the building of disposal installations, and also including a "waste tax".).
- sanctions of all kinds (for individuals - for industry).

In the lesson the topic is suitable for envisaging the use of general learning goals, the interpretation of statistics and diagrams (with the recognition of the error of linear predictions), abstractions and re-concretisations - all of which are skills tabulated in the Matrix.

Operationalised goals of the topic "Waste" (selected):
Name three causes of the avalanche of waste; name the consequences of the failure to remove waste, name various solutions to the problem and evaluate them according to the question: who is affected more - who pays more? Name the causes on the part of the individual and of industry; justify why "waste" is a political problem; tell a motorist pouring oil down a drain about it.
Show the comparisons, and differences, the connexions to and with the problems Water, Air, Playgrounds, and if necessary even be in a position to give an example of how planned

obsolescence or advertising (detergents) contribute to pollution of the environment.

Waste as an example for classroom teaching

It might be suitable first of all to make the causes known.
For example, previously:

> Paper packaging was used to light the fire; stoves were heated with coal or wood; the ashes were used on paths or as fertiliser. People ate fresh food; waste from food was used as animal feed or as compost on the garden. Empty bottles were returned to the shop. Commodities, toys, even clothes lasted a long time and were repaired over and over again.

When considering the possible solutions this is the key question: who does the "private"solution benefit most and who the public one?
Who decides? (Explanation of the background of interests in - if necessary,comprehensible - institutions.)
The second question: "Where should we put the refuse then?" arises from the information about dumps, smell or increases in the production of synthetic materials.
Then responsibility, costs and laws, etc..
What the individual can do, what must be built in the way of installations.
After that, a step by step generalisation is recommended:
The changeover to new forms of heating, to tinned food, to using synthetic materials as packaging, to planned obsolescence has increased the amount of rubbish enormously. The individual can no longer get rid of it himself; the general public must construct installations for this purpose.
In short: Refuse and waste, which used to be a private problem, have nowadays become a public problem. The question must be answered how the burden of solving it should be distributed.

To put it in a more general way: Technical development (and abuses too) have created a problem which can only be solved by the general public.

Then the transfer can follow: Is the last statement true for other problems as well?

4.3 Example of a text under the sub-heading "the context of the problem". (Here: on the topic, "the theories of conflict" and "the didactics of conflict".)

1. What are the theories of conflict about?

The question: Harmony or conflict, which, linked to the alternative answers in modern philosophy and political science (Hobbes, Rousseau), was up to a few years ago a point of departure for the formation of hypotheses, is

today no longer answered with an alternative in the sociological theories of conflict - except for the dogmatic-marxist. A relative unity of opinion is prevalent that "an analysis of social relationships and political systems is not possible without the concept of conflict". (Maier,H. 1973, p.65)
In contrast the theories give differing answers to, among others, the following (key) questions:

1. Which relative position and which functions do social conflicts have?
2. What are their causes? Can they be traced byck to a single or dominant cause or each time to many?
3. Is it primarily a question of avoiding conflicts? - settling them? - solving them? - of getting rid of the causes thoroughly?
4. With what means or in what way is the settlement or the solution to ensue?

Answers to these four questions are mostly linked together in the different theories of conflict; apart from that they are always determined by interests influencing the process of perception and corresponding pictures of society, not, however, with results as differing as those in the discussion about the objectives of political education.

2. Controversies about didactic approaches.

Through the discussion about modern government directives for political education (e.g. in Hesse and North-Rhine Westphalia) the controversy about conflicts an political education has flared up again in public since about 1973. This had for the most part been settled in didactics (with differences in detail) and decided in the meaning of the relative agreement of the theories of conflict. That "conflict" belongs to "the consensus" must be justified again in the face of harmonistic and radical-antagonistic attitudes.

4.4 Example of the possibility of developing more general, yet still concretisable learning goals from an operationalised objective.

The following example is intended to show how looking at the categories of the Matrix can help to turn simple factual information into the starting point for recognition directed towards overlapping objectives.
With a series of pictures: DDT spreader - rain washes DDT into the ground - cow eats grass - man drinks milk, the objective is operationalised: To be able to say what stages the insecticide DDT goes through before it reaches the human organism.
However, the answer to the following question is didactic-

ally significant - what has a schoolstudent actually learnt from this information, what is he "really" supposed to learn from it? Whoever operationalises this objective has obviously more extensive goals in view.

1st Abstraction: Schoolchildren (in 5/6 grade) will soon find a first abstraction if they have learnt systematically to express what they have learnt "more generally": "Insecticides can eventually harm people". To know that is, without doubt,"more important"than to have reached the first objective (that DDT, although banned since 1971, remains active for two decades).

2nd Abstraction: Schoolchildren in 7/8 grade will easily find a second abstraction with only a few stimuli. Then they learn: Insecticides have been used which, although they have helped to increase food production, will have a harmful effect on people for a long time.

Re-concretisation: There is hardly any need for inquiry into interests in order to initiate the step towards "suggested solutions", "alternative modes of action" towards"prevention of dangers" and "reflection on the consequences of alternatives":
The question "how is such a thing possible?" is followed by the more concrete: "why wasn't it prevented?" and even more concrete "what can happen so that controls on pollution are laid down by law?" and: "Against what opposition and how must/can such controls be carried out?"
A more complex learning objective could run as follows (it is formulated abstractly here but should not be too difficult to operationalise in about 10/11 grade):
Be in a position to prove, using DDT as an example that harmful long-term effects from chemicals can only be prevented if the interests of the general public in control are carried out politically by independent controllers, even against the opposing interests of people concerned with selling and using - often thoughtlessly - such chemicals.

4.5 Preliminary remark on the phenomena study letter "Needs and society".

Note: These preliminary remarks are designed to be used as examples of how the phenomena study letters are related to the Prologue.

The study letter under discussion is a problem-oriented introduction to the social sciences. As the Sociology Grammar and the Didactic Prologue under special viewpoints provide an introduction to the problem-fields of the social sciences you will quite justifiably ask yourself if it is necessary to introduce three approaches to acquaint you with the thinking of the social sciences.

To begin with this point shall be briefly pursued with the aim of making clearer on the one hand the relative position and the function of this study letter in connexion with the "Grammar" Sociology and the "Didactic Prologue", and on the other the whole course.. Further the differences and the central point of junction of the individual objectives and problem approaches shall be worked out.
The whole problem of inequality is common to the three approaches. In the Didactic Prologue the following is developed from the problem to serve as a political key question:
What preconditions must be created today or tomorrow by politics so that the satisfaction of need is possible for everyone?
That includes the assertion on the one hand that the satisfaction of needs is not equally possible for everyone or is unequally distributed, and on the other the hope that it is possible to create preconditions to achieve an equal distribution of the possibilities to satisfy needs - at least tendentially.
The educational key question is deduced from this in the Didactic Prologue:
What information does the politically active citizen need in order to participate as an active member of the state in the decisions necessary for this function?
The concept "human needs" is suggested as a basic concept which helps to make these questions capable of being analysed and decided (cf. the matrix in the Didactic Prologue). The following is postulated as an overlapping interest of recognition:
The concept of need is intended to serve as a general criterion, valid for viewing societal questions and communicating them in education.
The "Sociology Grammar" leads the student directly into the basic problem of social inequality. The options raised in the Didactic Prologue, survival and a good life are pursued further and embedded as an adjustment or emancipatory problem-area in a general sociological problem. The factors influencing stability and change in socio-cultural life-styles are to be examined.

The leading concept is social inequality - a characteristic of all known societies. Centred round this leading concept socio-cultural reality is presented and interpreted on a theoretical level and the basic conceptual, scientific-theoretical and also partly scientific-historical framework and its possible alternatives considered.
In the study letter under discussion this reflection process is put to one side in favour of problem orientation. Inequality is not seen a priori as problematic, rather the question is asked through what conditions it becomes a

problem to whom and why. Primarily theories are not to be pondered over nor the legitimation question of inequality discussed as in the Sociology Grammar, rather the difficult problem of the explanation and historical transformation of inequality, and the ways of living together in society are tackled.
The options formulated in the Didactic Prologue undergo examination with regard to their societal acceptability. The postulation is taken up that the concept of need should serve as a valid criterion for considering societal questions. Correspondingly the concept of need stands at the centre of this approach. It is shown to be not only a valid criterion for analysing society in the dimension of inequality, but also suitable for indicating possible ways of solving the problem.
The link to the rest of the study letters follows from the didactic approach of this distance study course, which is a problem approach. On the one hand the Matrix is set in this study letter to decide on problems and problem-fields. On the other hand the student is enabled to examine critically the problem approaches suggested in the individual study letters and to arrange them or transfer them into the general problem framework of society.

4.6 Analysing the phenomena of social change in a village community.

This example is taken from the Radio College (Funkkolleg) series "Social Change" whose didactic approach was the same. It is designed to make clear how "dangers", "opportunities" and options can be applied to the analysis of situations, here the social change in a village community.

Among others the following data are important:
number of inhabitants - professional structure - structure of agriculture - size of firms - local-born people, newcomers - separation of place of work and home (commuters in and out) - traffic conditions - clubs - church-goers.

Visible signs of"prosperity", "well-being" - noise - air - safety of children on the street - public foot paths - houses, old,new or renovated - type of heating - water consumption - educational structure - recreational facilities -(regular) communication in the neighbourhood, neighbourhood help - who had/has prestige (who do people greet?) - leading groups - participation at community celebrations, community customs and habits - pressing problems, expectations for the future - which changes (planning mistakes) can no longer be put right? . In whose interest were they carried out? Which did not take place - in whose interest?

Overlapping questions (in connexion with the didactic instrumentarium.):

All of the questions cannot be applied to all of the data; however, the significance of change can generally be revealed only through application of the questions.

- Is the change felt to be a "gain" (growth, enrichment, extended possibilities for satisfying needs, for self-realisation) - or a loss?
- In which cases is more prosperity connected with dangers for well-being?
- Has "everyone" been effected equally - social groups unequally - by the change? Does the change represent rather a step towards more equality/scope or towards more inequality/dependence (on what? on whom?)?
- Have the possibilities for exerting influence on changes you are affected by (and the others?) become more - less by the changes themselves?
- Which new regulations which previously had not been necessary (recognisable) were the consequences of the changes - should have been or ought to have been the consequences of the changes?
  Why didn't regulations occur? In whose interest?
- Which unsolved problems created new ones? Which solutions to problems obstructed other solutions which would presumably have been "better"?
- In which cases of project planning or road building were there protracted or unsatisfactory solutions because existing laws (land law) have not been brought into line with the paragraph on public utility in the constitution? (Article 14.2)
- Which sorts of dependence on people have been replaced by democratically fixed controls? - Which new ones have emerged?
- Which of the changes you have noted can be explained by conditions that you would describe as "private" - which affects lots of other people besides yourself? Which is explained as mainly private although it affects many others?

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by M. Borrill

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